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ABSTRACT

Career education has been the focus of substantial thrusts in American education, both at the national and state levels, with program development and experimentation taking place in numerous local education agencies. Intended to aid school superintendents, principals, and career education project personnel in the conceptualization and implementation of career education programs, this paper synthesizes and describes the processes and concerns involved in the local administration of career education programs. Drawing upon experiences in implementing career education in Mesa, Arizona, one of six national school-based career education sites, the following topics were reviewed as possible difficulties and areas of concern: (1) interim and task force organizational structures and linkage-related issues, (2) program staffing, including utilization of existing staff or recruiting new staff, (3) continuity of organizational operations and maintaining expertise roles, (4) role conflict and the problem of alienation of the school principal, (5) teacher issues and teacher groups, (6) community issues, particularly minority concerns, and (7) quality control importance and factors. (SB)

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CAREER EDUCATION:

LOCAL ADMINISTRATION OF PROGRAMS

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INTRODUCTION

Career education has been the focus of substantial thrusts in American education, both at the national and state levels, with program development and experimentation taking place in numerous Local Education Agencies (LEA's).

This paper will deal with career education in Mesa, Arizona, one of six national career education sites.

The purpose of this paper is to synthesize and describe the processes and concerns involved in the local administration of career education programs. Mesa has received funding for developing and implementing career education from The Center for Vocational and Technical Education (CVTE), the prime contractor for the Comprehensive Career Education Model, and from the Arizona State Department of Education.

It is intended that school superintendents, principals, and career education project personnel will find the theories and experiences described in this document useful in the conceptualization and implementation of their career education programs.

CHANGE IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

Man has many ways in which he reacts to the inevitable. An old proverb deals with the reactions of a native population on a tiny Pacific isle when informed a tidal wave was forthcoming. One group began a festival of revelry, another followed a leader to the mountain top to meditate until the end, while the third group began investigating methods of living under water.

Educators are in the same dilemma today. A fast-moving society has created an enormous technological revolution which has left many students graduating from school lost in the swiftness of societal change. Youth has responded by rebelling, dropping or copping out, or clogging the welfare rolls which compound the social dynamite in the nation's inner cities and streets. Educators have ignored the problem by calling for solutions which reinforce or fail to touch the problem, or simply hoping that time will produce a solution.

Change, as so frequently witnessed, has never reached a rational, happy medium in American education; instead, the change that has taken place can be characterized by the irrational actions of those following a free swinging pendulum—first in the direction of no change and then unwarranted and abundant change. The extreme positions of the pendulum or the two types of change in American education can be characterized as the "Don't Rock The Boat Syndrome" and the "Bandwagon Mania."

Only in a few cases has significant change taken place at any level of the educational system since its birth in America. The literature is replete with reasons and illustrations of this phenomenon. In brief, the term simply identifies a situation where sufficient inertia has gathered in and around an institution to prohibit change. People don't want to "rock the boat." Most change that has taken place has not been significant or meaningful. This type of change has been a result of the "Bandwagon Mania."

Intermittently, a product enters the American scene that attracts the attention and support of the public. The attraction snowballs and soon is in use by large segments of the population, whether or not they really have the problem the solution was designed to solve. The same kind of faddism is true among educators. The open space concept and overhead projectors are illustrative of the mania. The innovation is introduced, appears rational, gains political and pedagogical support, and is then adopted by all that have the power to do so without any consideration of the following question: Is this solution an appropriate cure for the problem from which our institution is suffering?

So, innovations come and go—seldom being matched with the problems they are designed to cure, seldom being planned for implementation, and seldom being evaluated on the basis of what they were supposed to accomplish. The preceding behavior generally labels educational innovations as irrational and shallow in meaning and purpose.

Educators are just beginning to ascertain how to live with the problem by creating rational alternatives that deal with the problem rather than symptoms of the problem, or in the language of our Pacific islanders, how to live under water.

REASONS FOR CAREER EDUCATION

There can be little doubt that one of the major thrusts for career education is the striking need for relevance based on the reality of the present U.S. labor market. A recent publication by the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, entitled *Career Education* (1971), reports that 2.5 million students leave the nation's schools without adequate preparation for a career. This statistic includes high school and college graduates in addition to dropouts. The problem seems to be perpetuated by a heavy student emphasis on college prep courses while in high school. Approximately 80 percent of the high school population are enrolled in college prep courses. Only a small percentage of these students finish college. Hence, the remaining numbers leave school without any type of occupational training. The wisdom of this emphasis on college preparation is also in question when one considers that the supply of college graduate and post graduate degree-holding job applicants far exceeds labor market demand. Eighty percent of all school students are enrolled in college prep courses, when only 20 percent of the jobs require a college education. An apparent conclusion to be drawn from this information is that our society is overtrained, or at least not trained in the appropriate areas. A leading news journal (*Time*) referenced this problem in a discussion of the graduating class of 1971.

> A number of radical education experts argue that the U.S. has become an overtrained society, producing too many specialists for too few jobs. Every year, more and more people enter colleges or universities; in fact, the number of American students currently exceeds the entire population of Switzerland. Yet 80 % of all jobs available in the U.S. are within the capabilities of those with high school diplomas ("Graduates and Jobs: A Grave New World," 1971:58).

The same journal continued its exploration of this concern by speculating on the outcomes or results of the problem. The following quote capsulizes the cogent message.

> The largest graduating class in history—an educated army of 816,000—is entering America's certified credential society and learning to its

> sorrow that a degree is no guarantee of a suitable job. Like the dollar, the diploma seems to have been devalued (*Graduates and Jobs: A Grave New World*, 1971:49).

The concept of the deflating value of the diploma is recognized by leaders in education. While serving as U.S. Commissioner of Education, Sidney P. Marland expressed the following in regard to the problem.

> . . . fully half of all high school students enroll in college after graduation. Superficially that sounds fine. But too many take this step, I fear, because a pernicious conformism infecting our society forces them to flock to campuses to get credentials many really don't need—or, at least, shouldn't need. Given the inflexible law of supply and demand, the flood of bachelors degrees has inevitably reduced their value as an entree to a good, professional job primarily because there simply aren't that many jobs in the American economy that require a college education (Marland, 1971:5&6).

Surveys made by the National Planning Association reveal that there is an excess of degrees in the aerospace industry and certain areas of the teaching profession, and an eventual excess of bachelor's degrees in every field except the health professions is predicted.

The previously stated criticisms are not directed solely to "college diplomas." The criticisms have been directed toward the forces that have given rise to the great imbalance that exists between labor supply and demand and the resulting large percentage of persons unemployed. Hoyt, et al. expressed concern in the following quote.

> To charge that college education has been overemphasized to the extent that those youth who do not pursue it are often considered "second class" is not a denigration of the values of a college education for those who want it. Neither is it an intimation that a college education's only worth is its job preparation role. It is a plea for acceptance of a greater variety in life styles and in types of career preparation. It also represents a conviction that college itself would be more meaningful if it were not considered a hurdle to be gotten to and through as soon as possible (1972:30).

It is probably not necessary to enumerate in detail all problems currently faced by society and education in preparing youth to become effective, contributing members of society, but the concern that students are exiting schools with an acute lack of knowledge of the world of work, and the previously listed social manifestations of the problem indicate that a serious ill is spreading throughout our educational system. It would be in error, however, to assume that the problem touches youth only. Upon examining the problem further, it can be found that even when people are adequately prepared for a job that is available, they are not prepared to cope with future changes in occupations.

But career education is more than just economically motivated. It recognizes that earning a livelihood in this country is a measure of the total development of a human being as a citizen and as a contributing member of a family. This marks the emphasis in career education as critically and dramatically different from one of a narrowly defined emphasis in vocational education.

Unlike past fragmented efforts which barely scratched the surface of our problems, career education is proposed as a complex and comprehensive solution to the problems listed previously. Career education, as a unified and unique thrust, should permeate all education and give a new centrality to the objective of successful preparation for and development of leisure time activities and a lifelong, productive career. In other words, career education relates to all students, all subject matter, all possible careers, all leisure time activities, and all age levels.

The breadth of career education is illustrated by the following three goals:

1. Learning to Live—Career education is not restricted to learning a vocation; in fact, the work week is growing shorter, while leisure time is growing larger and becoming more important. Career education means the development of self-awareness of one's leisure time, career, and life in general.

2. Learning to Learn—Basic school subjects have been taught in a vacuum. Students have continually asked, "Why must I learn this?" and "How will it help me?" Sadly, these questions have either fallen on deaf ears, or the person questioned was simply unable to answer. Career education doesn't intend to ignore the three R's, but instead plans to couch them in a new frame of reference that helps the learner understand their critical relevance to the world of work and the world of leisure.

3. Learning to Make a Living—This means that career education intends to prepare individuals so that they possess an awareness of their capabilities, at least to the point of being economically self-sufficient and productive members of society. In other words, students should possess employability skills when they exit our schools so that they can either secure a job or decide, through broad career awareness and decision-making skills, to continue with technical training or a four-year baccalaureate program.

CHANGE PROCESSES AND PROBLEMS

Change is an alteration in the structure of any of an organization's processes, goals, or purposes (Griffiths, 1969). Career education is envisioned as a bold change of great magnitude

on the contemporary American education scene. Balances in the preparation of alternatives for American youth other than the college prep type have been introduced swiftly on a broad scale basis. Promise and potential are in the balance with such a collapsed time schedule. Schools cannot usually respond rapidly to needs for renewal or change.

First, most school systems are not organized to respond quickly to change. They are built on assumptions of logical decision-making with due deliberation following the established lines of authority and the existing division of labor. In times of slow external stress, such organizational structures may be adequate (Burns and Stalker, 1961). In times of rapid external environmental change they are clearly inadequate.

Implementation of special projects within the parameters of a collapsed time schedule creates additional difficulties in addition to the usual problems confronting changing programs. Comparison can be made to explorations in the wilderness: witness the explorer who sets out to cross Death Valley, judges his route inappropriate, and changes direction with dispatch. For the explorer, accuracy and quickness of decision are crucial. This same analogy applies to the education profession. Many times in new programs, decisions must be made quickly so that progress toward the goal is maintained. However, these decisions generally cannot be made and implemented with sufficient haste within the parameters of the traditionally arranged line of authority in the organization.

This presents the first problem in the organization and administration of special projects like career education. From the point of view of a superintendent, the alternative is to organize quickly outside the school structure, build in lines of linkage to that structure, and move towards what has been called a project type of organization (Steward, 1971). This alters the normal structure into a "matrix" with overlapping lines of authority and positions and creates problems of its own. The largest long-range concern must be directed towards the problem which all innovations organized outside the regular school structure must face, that of being "fenced off" and ultimately abandoned.

Such problems may strike the practitioner as unnecessarily esoteric at this point, but a major purpose of this paper is to alert superintendents and other public school administrators to one of their major functions, i.e., to anticipate and head off possible problems by confronting them from the beginning. In Mesa, Arizona, the career education proposal was hammered out by a task force approach in 10 days. It was accomplished entirely by in-house expertise. The model of those 10 days (a project administration model) was then extended into the Mesa Comprehensive Career Education Model (CCEM) Project when confirmation of funding was received. Given the shortened timelines established by national priority, it was imperative that the project be staffed from within. For example, confirmation of funding from The Center for Vocational and Technical Education (CVTE) was received in August

of 1973 while comprehensive managerial, organizational, and program plans were due at CVTE by September, 1973. The necessity to staff from within was viewed as a positive move for the following two reasons: (1) talented staff to do the job existed in the organization, and (2) utilizing staff from within ensured linkage with the district.

Linkage Problems and Temporary Systems

When confronted with abbreviated time requirements and the widely accepted fact that significant change within the organizational lines of authority requires extensive amounts of time, a career education project, as with any large project, must be organized outside the line and staff structure of the school system. In attempting to anticipate the problems caused by such organization, it is necessary to examine the nature of temporary systems and their special problems (Miles, 1964). These problems may be classified as:

1) input overload;
2) unrealistic goal setting;
3) lack of process skills;
4) alienation; and
5) linkage failure.

All of these problems have already been manifested to some degree in the Mesa Project.

Input Overload. When attempting to respond to the call for organization and planning for local action, project personnel are likely to be plagued by phone calls and inquiries by members of the school system who are eager to get going. In addition, it is likely that organizational meetings will extend from early morning to late at night. Fatigue will set in and some officers will become "uptight," as the saying goes. Project management is not an uphill but smooth, inclined plane of activities; it is bumpy, and contains peaks and plateaus. There are both intense and slack periods. It is because of this "up and down" characteristic that I reemphasize the need for project leaders who are flexible and not prone to depression by defeat or elation by victory. A good old level head is a must. Planning can alleviate some of the problems, but not eliminate them completely.

The process of "fast-tracking" (to borrow a term from the construction industry) is salient to rapid organizational needs for response. Toleration for ambiguity, respect for human frustration and fatigue, and talent for fast modification of critical paths are essential qualities of project teams to resist counter-productive forces of input overload.

Unrealistic Goal Setting. Great rhetoric and high purpose often lead to unrealistic goals. In the beginning of a plan to institute career education, the writing of a philosophy,

the "call to arms," many briefings and Rotary Club speeches will make it appear as if talking about career education can bring it about. Later, the sober facts may creep in. The present system is complicated, regardless of its size. It exists in a delicate and sensitive equilibrium. The system can be subtle, but it can also be brutal against change. It knows how to survive and it is always there. It doesn't go away.

Another phenomenon of unrealistic goal setting lies in the creation of rising expectations. Too often it is easy to begin blowing one's horn before the music has been completely written. If a group enterprise embarks upon a new venture, the venture's success can often be jeopardized by premature claims of success or viability. Groups often succumb to frustration if stated and publicized goals cannot be attained. Demoralization can be prevented by careful employment of realistic goal setting with patient explication of results. The leadership of any organization should constantly guard against letting the press get ahead of actual progress and products. After all, actions speak louder than words, and to take a phrase from the sports world, when you can do it (show the results) "it ain't braggin'." This way, unnecessary criticism from community and professionals is kept at a minimum.

Lack of Process Skills. Interpersonal skills can lead to breakdown not only of the innovators themselves but, as they attempt to carry out their ideas, of the total system itself. A comprehensive career education project staff is likely to spend many hours processing their own thoughts, confronting each other, and securing consensus. Experience with other innovative programs has demonstrated the need for periodic cleansing, open sessions, retreats, and other safety valve confrontations to deal with the emotional heat of change.

The leader must be concerned with two categories of change: 1) affective or human change (the growth and development of individuals), and 2) program or procedural change (including organizational direction and programs).

Leadership is a collective enterprise of all elements of the organization and takes place through its people. In addition, an organization is systematic in nature, and a change in any part of it will affect changes in all other parts. People in the organization realize this and often resist change because they don't understand what it will mean to them, not because they don't want it. Change will not take place in an atmosphere where this type of distrust and suspicion exists. Honesty, trust, and effective communication must prevail. Leadership tends to create a healthy climate and is most successful in bringing about any type of organizational change when the change involves the recognized needs of those it affects and when these persons play an integral part in the assessment of needs and the planning for change. Frequently, the leader must go beyond these activities. Some members of the organization may simply not be ready for a change proposed collectively by the organization. A leader has at least three alternative courses of action in this situation: 1) ignore them, 2) release

them, or 3) deal with them where they are. The first two alternatives are not acceptable since both tend to promote distrust and shatter security. Just as children must be instructed at their point of progress, adults also must be considered as individuals and dealt with in regard to their particular problem and total make-up so that they become contributing members of the organization.

The ideas presented above appear at first glance to be quite theoretical, and they are, but Mesa's experience in the administration of a national Career Education and Differentiated Staffing Project indicates that they are also effective. The following relates one such experience.

One pilot school in the Differentiated Staffing Project had a faculty with a mean age of 55. In contrast to that of the other pilot schools, this age was quite high. Possibly because of this age difference and an inherent insecurity with a project that had so much potential for changing their job role, this group of teachers was quite resistive and closed-minded to the project. Briefly, to resolve this problem, the administration:

1) revealed project goals,

2) demonstrated that the project was designed to ultimately benefit learners,

3) demonstrated that the teachers had great power in determining goals and developing plans for their school, and

4) demonstrated our credibility and the credibility of 1 - 3 above by working with each teacher individually on his or her concerns and resolutions and in developing their personal growth (in-service) plans.

This school, despite the concerns, worries, insecurities, and general resistive nature of those people involved, went on to make significant strides in instructional practices and staff utilization strategies.

The actions indicated in 1 - 4 above do not represent total leadership, but they do help illustrate the point that personal, affective development must precede and is requisite to organizational cognitive change. However, disciplined caring or being open and responsive to the concerns of others is no less important when the organization moves toward structural and program changes as described on the following pages.

Alienation. Team members of a comprehensive career development effort must continually watch for the development of the "we happy few" syndrome. This may occur not only

among themselves as they weather the change effort together, but foster islands of resistance due to the adoption of the training model which envisions groups of teachers being initially trained and later training other groups. Capitalizing upon the "ripple effect" is one thing; creating groups of "ins" and "outs" is another.

Linkage Failure. As career education begins to expand and pick up momentum, it should move into the regular ongoing program. To accomplish this sytem-wide is gambling upon mass acceptance. The inertia of a large system is simply too much to move. Linking the temporary system to the permanent system requires the utilization of pilot probes: field sites where change is malleable and manageable. Also, it helps the project get its foot in the door, gain some momentum—which is usually painfully slow—and acquire adherents from the field who have some stake in seeing it expand.

Central to any process is a clear determination of what the real objective is. For example, in the development of career education, the question must be asked, "Is the goal to develop a product (instructional packages) or is it to implement those packages?" If implementation is the goal, then consideration must be given to problems of ownership and group involvement. The "principle of participation" is a vital bylaw of the process of change in successful school districts.

After all, teachers must feel meaningful ownership in career education when it is finished. If teachers do not own the program, there cannot be any linkage. Teacher ownership is critical. This issue is highlighted over a discussion related to curriculum materials. If materials are purchased, teachers must in some way shape their usage and their application prior to purchase, or it will be too easy to make a half-hearted effort or to scapegoat the curriculum should the task prove too difficult. Curriculum developed by teachers has a greater potential to acquire their professional loyalty and, as such, it will more than get a chance to prove itself.

Teacher ownership develops from meaningful and genuine involvement. Meaningful involvement for teachers has been an area of major focus for the Mesa project since its inception. The first major involvement of teachers occurred only two months after signing the contract with The Center for Vocational and Technical Education (CVTE), when approximately 150 teachers were engaged in a Saturday workshop to write the first cut of goal statements and performance objectives for the career education curriculum matrix. Many of these teachers have continued consultation with Mesa's Center for Career Development to develop the rational matrix and curriculum. The second major involvement of teachers was in a semester-long workshop in the spring of 1972, approximately seven months after the project's beginning. The Mesa project was responsible to orient all certificated personnel to career education. This challenge provided a perfect opportunity to engage teachers in the meaningful

involvement of developing their own in-service program. The purpose of the workshop was to develop an individualized in-service program. Ninety teachers enrolled in the workshop and labored diligently for the semester to accomplish the task.

In addition, management may succeed in carrying out its objectives, but support must emanate from the top of the line organization and middle levels to the classroom teachers. Innovations which portend large change can be isolated because they were, in the beginning, developed outside of the structure. This situation can be avoided through meaningful teacher involvement.

Advantages of Temporary Systems

The major advantages of Comprehensive Career Development as a temporary system is that it can move quickly. Relationships tend to be much less formal than in the rest of the school system. Ideas can be generated and implemented in a matter of hours or days. Linkage should be built in with personnel selection spanning both systems, since personnel have not been separated from their former responsibilities. The career development project must have autonomy and independence, but not to the degree that the efforts are isolated from the system, thus dooming the longitudinal goals of those same efforts completely.

A temporary system can also benefit from the advantages afforded educational organizations from internal performance contracting. The internal performance contract procedures employed over the past two years in the Mesa district have demonstrated the efficacy of sharing goals and resources with the organization's personnel. With establishment of shared goals and resource allocations in the Request for Proposal mode, as illustrated in Figure 1, the personnel have an opportunity to develop strategies to accomplish those goals within the designated guidelines and resources. Accountability for the end result is also much more available since criteria and resources are not out from under the direct influence of the implementing staff. In other words, contracting with teachers on the basis of learner outcomes offers a mechanism for: (1) establishing pupil benefits, (2) allowing the teaching profession governance of their own activities, and (3) restructuring the school system into a non-linear system. That these elements are viewed as ultimately compatible is the hope of the education profession to grow toward full professional status, which derives professional privileges by meeting its professional responsibilities (English and Zaharis, 1971a).

These problems are not the only ones affiliated with getting career education moving in a school system, but they have and will continue to dominate much thinking in establishing such a program. Superintendents and project directors must attempt to anticipate potential problems by creating a structure which avoids some of the ones briefly discussed.

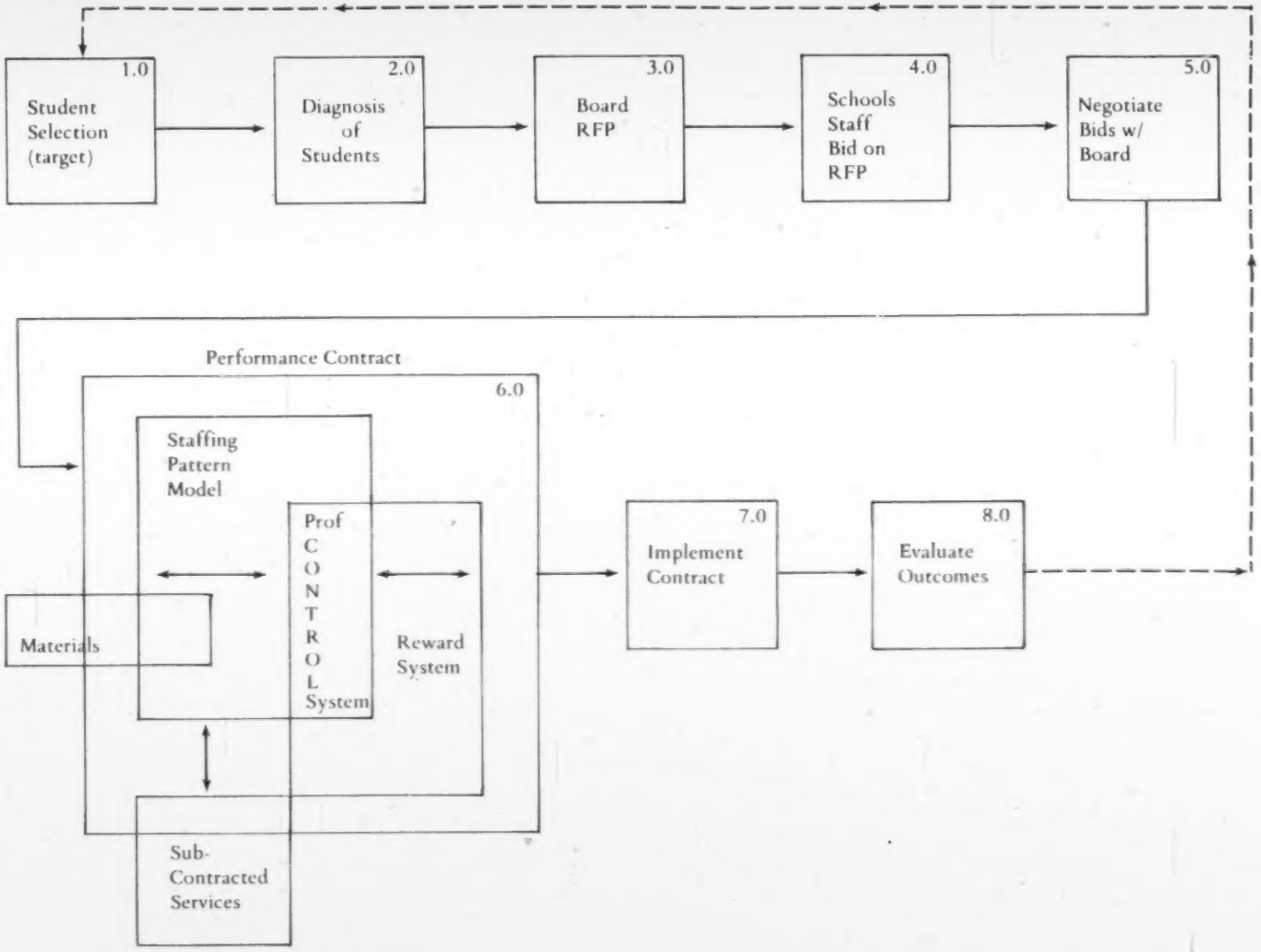

Fig. 1 – A Mesa Public Schools Tentative System Model For Internal Educational Performance Contracting

Organizational problems still represent a grey area in educational research. Specifically, education is in need of in-service programs and case studies on various types of temporary systems used in education. Taxonomies, technologies, and methods of such systems which ameliorate some of the problems with the utilization of them via systematic research would be of excellent service to the local superintendent.

Temporary systems avoid adding to the "tallness" of the administrative organization. Some recent research confirms our own empirical findings in this regard. The taller the structure, the more removed the teacher feels from the action, the more strange the goings-on, the greater the feelings of alienation and hostility. Carpenter (1971) found that teachers who lived in administrative structures which were "tall" possessed less feelings of prestige within the community, less feelings of professional authority associated with their position, and saw less opportunity to participate in setting school goals.

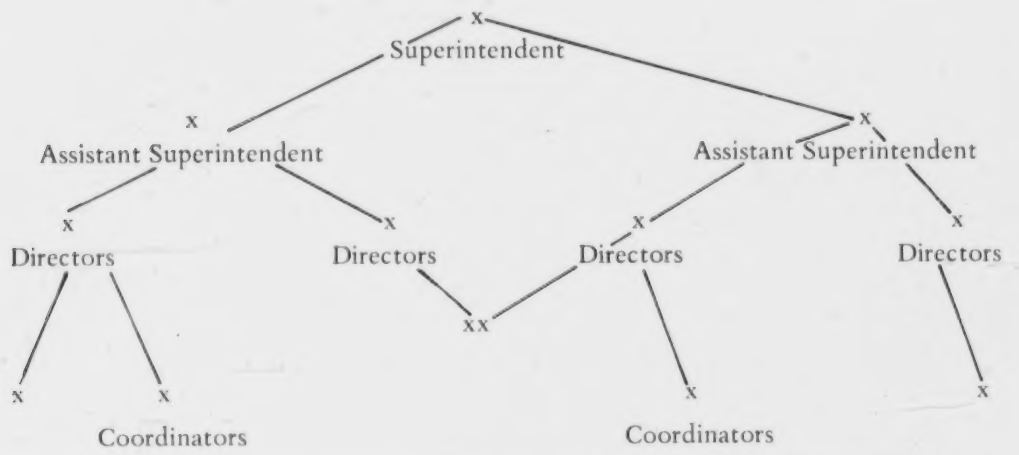

Fig. 2 – A Tall Administrative Structure

A temporary system becomes an intermediary force. It is not central office and, if it is able to maintain a close watch on the pulse of the system, can piggyback on field energy for change which may be unrecognized even by the central office itself. The major point here is that in the organization of career education programs, the choice should not be to add to the permanent bureaucratic structure. It is envisioned that, in the future, such a

bureau should be unnecessary or minimal. By capitalizing upon the project management approach, it is possible to accomplish goals and utilize personnel in other temporary systems later. In this manner, career education truly can be infused into the current curriculum as it should be rather than becoming an organization of itinerant consultants who intermittently pop into classrooms to offer a dash of career education.

PERSONNEL AND STAFFING

It has already been mentioned that shortened time constraints make staffing from within nearly a foregone conclusion. The necessity of obtaining personnel familiar with the informal organizational system and the desire to build linkages in people early in the developmental periods also enhance this approach. Having high caliber personnel in the organization makes this approach feasible.

In order to assure a high degree of in-house expertise, it is sometimes necessary to recruit personnel from outside the system. In doing so, organizational weaknesses are overcome rather than perpetuated. However, recruiting from outside the system is not a panacea: you must know what you are looking for. Davis (1972) has offered the following guidelines for recruiting personnel who possess potential for leadership. Leaders:

1) tend to have broad interests.

2) are emotionally secure so that they are not over-elated by victory or crushed by defeat.

3) have a strong personal motivation to keep accomplishing something.

4) realize that they get their job done through people and therefore try to develop social understanding and appropriate skills.

In times of emergency such as the one regarding staffing career education, promotion from within may or may not be a desirable move. If in-house personnel are weak, internal blind spots may be perpetuated. In contrast, if balanced recruiting has been practiced in a system, internal blind spots are less likely to be present and therefore less likely to be perpetuated. In larger systems, or systems where long years of only internal promotion exists, internal weaknesses can be a real problem. In systems such as these, the immediate start-up demanded by a program can be accomplished only by promoting some personnel who are not equipped with the necessary skills for the job.

In the Mesa situation of short-term staffing, the project staff will be gone within five to seven years, with the programs which they developed hopefully incorporated into the school system. The members of the present temporary system shall have returned to their regular posts, been promoted, gone into other temporary systems within the school system, or left the system altogether. The Mesa Differentiated Staffing Project was fortunate to have a forerunner in staffing who pioneered with temporary systems which were established and abolished after introducing internal performance contracting (English and Zaharis, 1971b) and several other unique and innovative ideas (English and Zaharis, 1971c). In fact, the Mesa schools piloted a unique Center for Educational Advancement (CEA) which has been an in-house organ of change for over six years. Introducing a change of this magnitude could only be accomplished with the past experience of CEA and a host of other projects and programs which have established the climate for temporary systems to be born and terminated.

Some problems in staffing occurred which merely amplified problems of the regular school system structure. For example, there are inevitable conflicts between specialists and generalists in such an organization or line and staff. There is a distinct tendency for staff role incumbents to become independent, using their knowledge base as a wedge against organizational control. This results in continual skirmishes and occasional jurisdictional conflict. In times of demand for rapid organizational change, such conflicts can become overblown due to the "hothouse" effect of the change itself.

The problem of continuing leadership is partially resolved by the fact that as personnel from the temporary system of the career education program work back into either the normal system or other temporary systems, this human linkage assures a continuity of first-rate, experienced leadership. Promotion from the principalship level into higher middle management positions assures leadership continuity at that level. The hardest problem to face is the maintenance of high-quality personnel; specialists are often risk rather than security oriented and frequently move on to situations which demand their services. Perhaps here the best a school system can hope for is that over the transition period a reservoir of technical talent is developed in-house to maintain the innovation time. But the problem still remains. Highly technical people are itinerant. Unless continuity is more deliberately planned, it is more difficult to obtain in these areas.

Conclusions on Personnel and Staffing

Staffing problems from the perspective of a temporary system are accelerated by intense external pressure, exacerbate line/staff conflict, and promote the short-term utilization of highly specialized staff personnel wherever necessary. School systems are relative newcomers to the itinerant specialist at the top management levels. Personnel policies and procedures

are geared to the more stable, "up the system" type of administrative advancement. Whereas in the past only the superintendent may have been selected from outside the system, the trend will include many other types of specialists which highly sophisticated programs like career education will demand in the future. Internal conflict between the older and more entrenched line organization offices with its series of chairs contrasted with the professionally mobile research and development man, system analysts and on-site evaluators, portend a clash in professional orientation and values.

INTERNAL RELATIONSHIP: ROLE CONFLICT

In highlighting the maintenance of organizational equilibrium, Lonsdale (1964) mentions that such balance is related to the meeting of individual needs in the organization and the organization being adequate to fulfill the tasks central to its existence. As gaps appear between needs not being fulfilled and tasks going unmet, both morale (which is essentially a "gap" model as presented by Lonsdale) and the organizational productivity suffer.

Within this framework, Lonsdale (1964) discusses role conflict. One manner in which role conflict occurs is that two reference groups have different expectations of a role. This has occurred not only under a high-powered program like career education, but with smaller programs as well. Career education merely enlarges the problem. Basically, institutional expectations of the school principal have changed remarkably. School systems are demanding that principals absorb and acquire vast new realms of technical information in terms of such things as group dynamics, theories of instruction, and instructional technology. It means new content, new skills, new concepts, new understandings, and a new vocabulary must be acquired by the principal.

While school systems depend upon principals to provide support and understanding, and while teachers look to the principal for leadership at the unit level, the expectations of the teachers have not changed substantially. The principal is still viewed by teachers as the person to send unruly students to for discipline, to obtain materials from, to lean on for advice and reinforcement and, whether we like it or not, the person to keep some of the pressures of the central office off their backs. The rising role expectations of the central office, the anxiety created by such expectations as the principal's role becomes extended and those occupying the role become increasingly more aware of what they don't know, create role conflict. The result for principals is lowered morale, status loss, and sometimes hostility which may be more or less camouflaged depending upon the particular climate of the organization. The superintendent is placed in a dilemma, particularly in times of demands for instant upgrading of the organization's ability to deal with change. The easiest solution is to add specialists to the organization. This solves a short-term problem but creates several

longitudinal ones: first, the principals as a group are further alienated and frustrated; and second, added personnel have a way of becoming permanent. The point is that the problem of the role conflict presented to a system's principals has not really been solved.

The superintendent may respond to this situation in a variety of ways; however, none have demonstrated enough success to be considered a panacea. Outside foundations or institutes can be tapped on a consultant or grant basis to attack the problems that exist. Principals can also be involved more often at the central level. Career education projects require intensive training sessions for principals so they feel more comfortable with the concepts and vocabulary of the effort. None of these, however, are ever totally successful in reducing expectations placed on principals. In fact, given the present constraints in career education, it would be an impossibility. As Udy noted, "*The more complex the technology and/or the greater the amount of pressure exerted on the organization from the social setting, the greater the emphasis on administration*" (1965:690).

Perhaps this and other phenomena in terms of role conflict and internal relationships may best be understood by reexamining a model of organization developed by Udy. His model is shown in Figure 3 (Udy:1965).

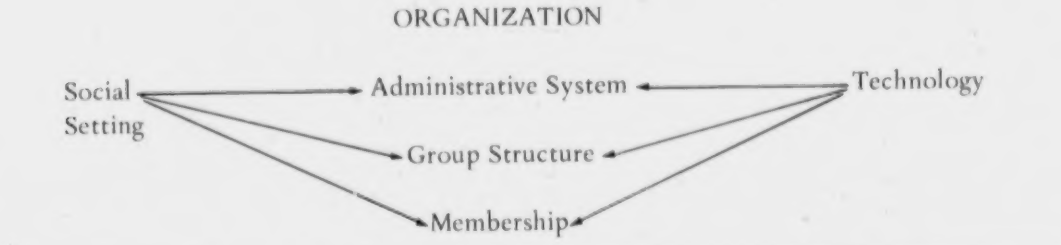

Fig. 3 – The Udy Paradigm of Organization

The degree of external pressure exerted on the system both from the social setting and from technology increases the need for coordination and control within the organization. Thus, while there may be a need for a diverse and creative response at the unit level in an experimental project, strong external pressures on the school system inevitably demand higher levels of coordination and control which will tend to negate individual school unit responses except within carefully prescribed parameters. Not only is this contrary to psychological principles of deriving ownership on the part of the teachers and principals, it increases the

role conflict between these two groups in the organization. An extrapolation of Udy's (1965) paradigm (Figure 4) may illustrate this point.

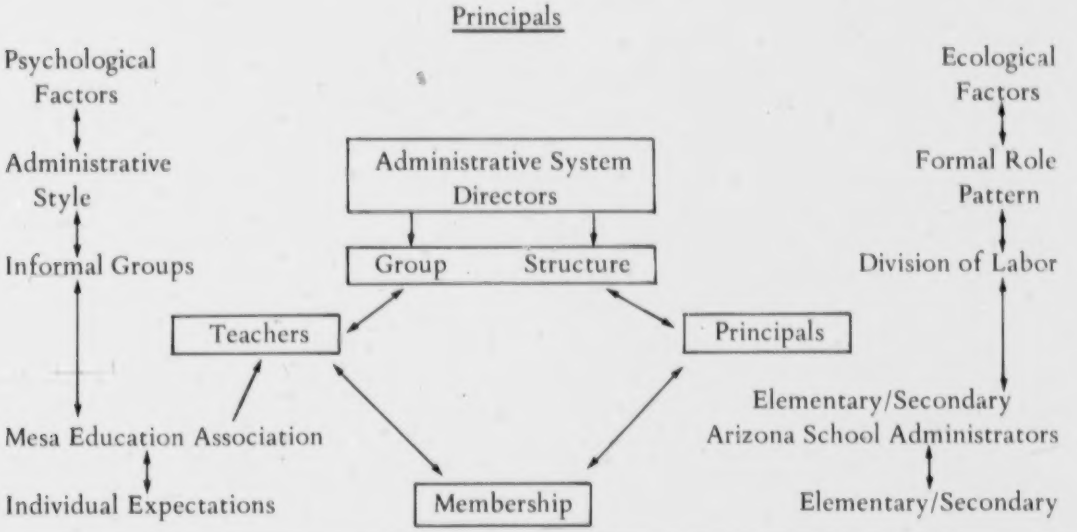

Fig. 4 – A Tentative Conflict Model of Internal Relationships

Deleting for the moment the variables of the Udy model of social setting and technology, the conflict model attempts to illustrate the internal relationship of the principal who is split between three groups. The principal relates both formally and informally to a group of teachers (his faculty), his peers (other principals), and his superior (a director). His referent group has a formal, or ecologically defined, relationship. This relationship is most usually defined on the table of organization. Principals are differentiated on the basis of school division (elementary or secondary). Informally they may be differentiated in their peer group (and referent teachers' group) on the basis that they may belong to two professional organizations, one exclusively for administrators within the state and the other related to the state-wide teacher's organization. Each of the informal groupings possesses social and psychological expectations. It is in this latter arena that perceptual differences may be experienced. In some cases, expectations are simply not compatible. This is complicated by a short time schedule and highly intense demands for technological change. Theories of organizational equilibrium help describe difficulties encountered, but they do not suggest practical solutions when a school system is struggling with an innovation of great magnitude which is to be implemented on a broad front basis.

The function of teacher groups was not mentioned within the context of this discussion, but it is felt that without some mention of the growing importance and weight in educational change, this paper would simply not be relevant. Internal negotiating procedures have changed the flow of decisions within educational organizations. That this will involve the NEA affiliates and AFT locals is inevitable, especially with the comprehensiveness demanded by career education ("Marland. . . ," 1971). To the extent that career education portends a change in teacher position or salary, or endangers present prerogatives, it will be resisted (English, 1972).

It has been found that the most resistance from secondary teachers results from their being fearful and doubtful about a program which cuts across their disciplines. On the other hand, if career education simply alters the present curriculum within the present structure of the educational system, it will have a much better (though less revolutionary) chance for early success.

Morale and job satisfaction factors are often the domain of the teachers' organizations. Projects, by their very nature, are a shift in educational practice which can measurably affect that domain. An example is the procedure of implementing programs with cumbersome funding sources which lie outside the control of the local school district. If funding is external and not responsible to the schedule of employee work and payroll, morale and job satisfaction can be seriously influenced negatively. Teachers' organizations have little sympathy with the school administration's problems in coordinating external funding. One of the Mesa projects was set back several months simply because funding was tardy and a summer teachers' workshop was in progress. The demoralization that swept the teachers when the payroll was two weeks late was unbelievable. Preplanning and careful consideration of the needs of the teachers' organizations seems to need to be mandatory for the success of curriculum research and development effort.

No technique is more effective in building good relations with teachers and teacher associations than simply informing them of intent and giving them a role in policy determination and decision-making. In Mesa, the teacher association, the Mesa Education Association (MEA), was awarded a major decision-making role in the Differentiated Staffing Project. The Education Professions Development Act's (EPDA) guidelines for Differentiated Staffing Projects stated that the local teacher association must approve the project before funds would be awarded to the district. The MEA was involved in all major policy decisions thereafter, and proved to be the biggest supporters of the project.

To illustrate, the MEA approved the internal performance contracting model and grew so enthusiastic about it that they actually contracted with the project for funds to develop a brochure about the project. The 15-hour in-service orientation program to career education was mentioned earlier in another example. Before going ahead with plans to hold the

in-service orientation during the summer, the MEA was informed of our Center for Career Development's purposes, and the association approved the program which required teachers to return to work before normal contract dates. The association also approved the standards which teachers had to attain on the posttest before they could receive their stipend. Another example involves three Instructional Development Institutes (IDI) sponsored for Mesa teachers. The Institutes require five 8:00 to 5:00 work days by participating teachers. This constitutes a nine-hour day, which is longer than the normal work day. Simply mandating teachers to attend the Institute would surely have produced great wrath from the teacher association, but by informing the association and teachers that the Institute would require an 8:00 to 5:00 work day without extra pay but with voluntary attendance, fine cooperation and approval from the association was produced.

Keeping plans above board and avoiding "hidden agendas" with the staff surely is an effective first step in creating good relations with a professional organization or union. There appears to be little research as to how and what teacher unions will accept or reject, and very little empirical data in the form of case studies to assist in planning by districts without congenial relationships with such unions. Studies of American teacher unions, their practices and positions on major educational issues is sorely needed in this regard. At this time, leaders must continue to operate on a keen intuitive sense.

COMMUNITY CONCERNS

The Mesa Public Schools have completed several community power structure surveys (Laird, 1971). This data was used to form the criteria for citizen participation in the Comprehensive Career Development project. It may be interesting to note that in the last power structure survey based on a random sample of administrators, teachers, minority parents, and service clubs, the administrators as one sub-group identified the top 10 persons with a correlation of .94, the highest of any of the sub-groups solicited. The community sub-group had a correlation of .87.

The conclusion of the investigator was that "The data would indicate that the Mesa Public Schools administrators have a keen perception of community power as compared with the summary composite findings" (Laird, 1971).

The community has responded with strong interest and elan. The minority community has been responsive, but reserved in its reception. For one thing, minority parents express fears that the Anglo majority will use the program to counsel their students into second-class, lower-status occupations. They are also afraid that even if the program is successful and their children are convinced that they can join an occupation, the unions will freeze them

out and the training will be for naught. Minorities must be counseled regarding this but encouraged to accept education to break into the "closed" areas.

QUALITY CONTROL

The superintendent, as is the case with the leader in any large organization, is, by definition of his job and role, quite removed from the field (the classroom level), or in this case, the project level where the success and quality of the project is created. The superintendent cannot be at all places at all times conducting quality control monitoring in order to insure success. Other capable leaders in the organization conduct the bulk of this function. Earlier, external recruiting, as well as internal recruiting, was referred to as a means of insuring a highly competent and balanced staff. This, of course, is the first step: hire personnel who can do the job. However, the successes and/or failures of the project always come back to roost with that person who is ultimately responsible for the organization: the superintendent. I also hasten to add that the superintendent can share success with his staff but there is no one in the organization with whom he can share failure.

Hence, the superintendent must be involved in the quality control of the project's progress. This is not intended to imply formal military inspections; it simply implies intermittent informal visits at project work sites and chats with the personnel. This contact provides a means of insuring that:

1) financial resources are adequate to get the job done;

2) physical facilities and supplies are in sufficient quantity;

3) the all-important people factors and relations are healthy;

4) the project division heads and respective workers are receiving adequate personal support and encouragement;

5) employees see the superintendent as being sincerely interested and concerned with them and their job; and

6) the superintendent is sufficiently well informed about the project, its goals, methods, and progress to meaningfully and adequately communicate with the board and community.

By keeping in contact with the project staff, as just pointed out, it is possible to become acquainted with many of the methods and techniques employed to get the job done. Becoming

more fully aware of the processes can be enlightening in regard to numerous other factors which normally cause concern. For instance, the Xerox and paper bills for a project can be phenomenal. But after reviewing curriculum development processes and other activities, it may be realized that the use of duplicating facilities is quite reasonable.

Curriculum Development

To provide an illustration of a comprehensive product development system, the 16-step process used in Mesa during the spring and summer of 1972 is provided on the following pages.

Task 1: Specify CCEM Statements for Each Unit to be Refined

During the months of October through February, Mesa Public Schools teachers, along with teachers in each of the other local school districts participating in the initial career education program, worked together to develop over five hundred goal statements which they agreed could be the focus for a national career education curriculum for children. In turn, these goal statements were assigned to be included in units of instruction to be developed for each grade level.

Task 2: Write Performance Objectives for Each Goal Statement Assigned to a Unit

A performance objective is a statement which describes: (1) what skill the learner should accomplish, (2) how the learner can learn the skill, and (3) what evaluation method can be used to measure how well the learner has achieved the skill.

Task 3: Specify the Proposed Content and Activities for the Instructional Unit

Here, the teachers developing the unit identify the content areas (e.g., math, reading, language arts) and the type of activity (e.g., group discussions, independent work) which the learner will use to reach each performance objective.

Task 4: Critique of the Unit by Curriculum Specialists

At this point, a thorough critique of the beginning prescription for an instructional unit is made to insure that the performance objectives are suitable for the goal statements in the unit and that the suggested content and activities are appropriate for the developmental age of the learner for whom the unit is intended.

Task 5: Critique of the Unit By the Support Team

Six separate support teams each critique the unit at this stage of development. The teams are as follows:

1) Minority Advisory Team - To insure that the proposed instructional unit does not include cultural bias.

2) Interdisciplinary Team - To insure that both content and activities fairly represent the disciplines generally taught in the educational program.

3) District Goal Relevancy Team - To insure that the proposed goal statements and performance objectives are in complete agreement with the district's existing goal statements and performance objectives.

4) Guidance Team - To insure that the proposed instructional unit is appropriate for the interests and attitudes of learners at each grade level.

5) Media Team - To insure that appropriate multi-media instructional materials are developed for teacher and learner use with the unit.

6) Evaluation Team - To insure that appropriate evaluation activities have been developed for each performance objective.

Task 6: Identify Grouping and Time Requirements for Each Instructional Lesson

Task 7: Identify Learner Prerequisite Skills

For each lesson developed, the prerequisite skills (what the learner must know how to do before he can begin the lesson) are identified.

Task 8: Write Teacher Strategies and Learner Directions

Here, the teachers developing the unit identify various ways the lesson may be taught and identify specific instructions for the learner to follow.

Task 9: Identify Enrichment Options

For each lesson, additional learning activities are written that are appropriate for both the slow and fast learner.

Task 10: Identify Resources and Costs

Specified within each unit is a list of resources that the teacher may wish to use as she is teaching the unit.

Task 11: Edit the Unit (grammar, punctuation, sentence structure, etc.)

Task 12: Pilot-Test the Unit

Each career education unit is pilot-tested with a group of learners at the appropriate grade level by a teacher who did not participate in the development of the unit. While the unit is being taught, one of the unit developers acts as an observer in that classroom critiqueing the unit as it is being taught.

Task 13: Revising the Unit

Each day that the unit is being pilot-tested, the pilot-test teacher and the observer review the result of the day's lesson and make revisions which both agree are appropriate.

Task 14: Forward the Instructional Unit to CVTE

After final typing, the completed unit is forwarded to The Center for Vocational and Technical Education, The Ohio State University, where it is critiqued and duplicated.

Task 15: Field-Test the Instructional Units

The completed unit is then sent to each of the school districts participating in the national career education program for field-testing, where the unit is used by many teachers in each school district.

Task 16: Revision of the Unit

Each teacher involved in the field-test critiques the instructional unit and sends her comments and suggestions for revision. These comments are incorporated into the final revision of the unit.

In Mesa, the curriculum development staff consists of 20 teachers hired to work full-time as curriculum unit developers and two supervising administrators. The developers, along with the nine building coordinators who work on the in-service function, are housed in a complex called the Center for Career Development Annex. This brings up another problem.

Where do you house additional staff? Few districts have facilities to accommodate this additional staff. Most will do what Mesa did: scour the community for low-cost rentals. The housing problem is a factor all superintendents will have to address when building large project teams. Other career education sites have been fortunate to have empty classrooms available for this purpose; however, this is a nicety few school districts enjoy.

Another administrative concern to which superintendents must give careful attention is the problem of "what to do" with additional staff after the project has run its course. Most of the project's key administrative positions were filled by district personnel and the others were hired from outside the district. Either way, the problem remains. For example, the Mesa Executive Director of Administrative Services took over as Project Director. A High School Assistant Principal took his place and so on down the ladder. All personnel involved were informed of the temporary nature of their job, but when people are giving excellent performances it's just not right to knock them down a notch when the project is completed. The same applies for those recruited from outside the district. These people are competent in their special field and as administrators. You can't turn good talent away. The growth of the district must be projected to determine its capacity for justifiably absorbing new administrative personnel. This kind of consideration is required of a professional organization.

Staff Development

The task of preparing district teachers, administrators, and other school personnel for involvement in a career education program in their school is an important and all-encompassing task. The staff development program must focus on:

1) new roles and responsibilities of the staff,

2) existing talents and competencies of present staff members, and

3) continuing assistance to staff members as they perform their new roles and responsibilities (Norton, 1972).

After the conceptualization stage, the first major step taken by the Mesa project staff was to hire nine teachers to serve as building coordinators. The role of the coordinators is strictly one of service to teachers such as arranging field trips, assisting in instructional problems, providing training when needed, and identifying and arranging for resource persons.

The second major step taken by the staff development division was to plan, develop, and provide an orientation to career education for the 1400 certificated district personnel.

The combination of numerous "contract" conditions created serious administrative concerns. First, the orientation had to be held during "off" hours; second, a pay schedule had to be determined; and third, participation was mandatory. All these factors involved the teachers, so the orientation purposes and plans were taken into regular contract negotiations with the teachers' association and a plan of benefit to both parties was determined. An addendum which stipulated participation in a 15-hour workshop at a standard district teacher pay rate was attached to each teacher's contract. Once again, the act of simply informing the teachers' association (MEA) of the project's intents and purposes seemed to clear the path for the career education orientation.

An interesting instructional technique with administrative advantages was employed to deliver the orientation program. It has been a long-standing goal of Mesa to move to a more individualized client-centered mode of instruction for its clients. One way to accomplish this goal would be to conduct training dealing with the topic; however, the expense of an endeavor such as this is extensive. Another way to provide such training was to combine it with the career education orientation. An effective means of combining the two objectives was to deliver the orientation via an individualized, competency-based instructional mode. This technique is an outgrowth of social learning theory (McDonald, 1970), and is deemed a highly effective means of teaching instructional methodology. To accomplish the task, the following eight individualized, competency-based instructional modules on career education were produced.

1) Introduction: Career Education Orientation

2) A Rationale for Career Education

3) Career Education: Models and Organization

4) Beginning Structure of the School-Based Model

5) Development of the Curriculum Matrix

6) CCD Subsystems

7) Instructional Concepts and Techniques

8) Evaluation: Concepts and Procedures

As development of the modules took place, the potential for modeling what the district considered to be desirable techniques grew even larger. Not only was it possible to model

total individualization (Frase, 1972a) but it was also possible to model pupil and teacher behaviors appropriate to the "open classroom" (Frase, 1972b).

The method of delivery varied from school to school. Usually, the principal and resource leaders provided an orientation for teachers before presenting the instructional packages. Instructional materials consisted of the eight booklets and coordinated filmstrips, TV presentations, and audio tapes. Booklets contained a goal statement rationale, performance objectives, learning activities, practice exercises, and pretests. Multiple-choice posttests based on performance objectives in each booklet were administered to each staff member.

After successful completion of all the posttests, each Mesa teacher was reimbursed for 15 hours of work above his/her regular contract.

Although the primary objective was to orient the Mesa personnel to CCEM, the program was also designed to involve all participants (e.g., teachers and administrators) in modeling innovative educational practices. In brief, the program modeled:

1) Continuous progress: participants were able to skip or study sections of the booklets as determined by performance on pretests.

2) Recognition of and provision for various learning styles: participants were free to select filmstrip/tape, TV, group, and/or reading activities to accomplish the objectives.

3) Individualized pacing: participants could progress at their own pace.

4) Teacher as a facilitator: participants directed their learning and relied on instructors as facilitators.

5) Independent and group activity: participants were not totally isolated or tied to a group, they were free to work with other teachers and/or consult with their resource teachers and principals.

6) Utilization of all levels of cognition: evaluation, analysis, synthesis, and application objectives were included in the booklets in addition to knowledge-comprehension level objectives.

Evaluation of the training program revealed an outstanding degree of acceptance of the individualized method of in-service, the instructional materials, and of career education in general.

In this section, a few of the administrative problems encountered in organizing and running a project heavily steeped in curriculum and staff development were pointed out. In essence, techniques that can be employed to avoid clashes with local teacher associations or unions, problems often encountered when significantly enlarging "staff" personnel numbers, and an innovative means of accomplishing more than one program objective for the price of one were described.

SUMMARY

In this paper, an attempt was made to define some of the difficulties and concerns which local school district administrators have to deal with in the implementation of career education. Generic to local school districts are many problems which occur when a change is attempted. All career education projects are still in process, but it is safe to say that some observations can be made. The key points which introspection has evidenced include:

1) interim and task force organizational structures and linkage-related issues;

2) staffing model problems including the difference between utilizing existing staff or recruited staff (internal versus external staffing);

3) continuity of organizational operations and maintaining expertise roles;

4) role conflict and the problem of alienation of the school principal;

5) teacher issues and teacher groups;

6) community issues, particularly minority concerns; and

7) quality control importance and factors.

It is hoped that this effort will serve as a bridge towards establishing productive dialogue as career education projects continue across the nation.

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* COMPUTER TAPES of AIM and ARM contain resumes of over 6,000 documents on vocational and technical education that have not appeared in RIE.

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A new project, the Supportive Information for the Comprehensive Career Education Model (SI/CCEM), is using the ERIC document base to provide information for the development of the Comprehensive Career Education Model (CCEM). In addition to using ERIC, the project staff is helping to acquire additional materials for CCEM. Many of these are being announced in AIM, ARM, and RIE.

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2. Information on how to order ERIC access products (AIM, ARM, RIE, and CIJE);
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DESCRIPTORS - *Career Education; *Program Administration; *Administrative Problems; Administrative Personnel; Instructional Staff; Curriculum Development; Role Conflict; Organizational Climate.

IDENTIFIERS - *Program Implementation.

ABSTRACT - Career ducation has been the focus of substantial thrusts in American education, both at the national and state levels, with program development and experimentation taking place in numerous local education agencies. Intended to aid school superintendents, principals, and career education project personnel in the conceptualization and implementation of career education programs, this paper synthesizes and describes the processes and concerns involved in the local administration of career education programs. Drawing upon experiences in implementing career education in Mesa, Arizona, one of six national school-based career education sites, the following topics were viewed as possible difficulties and areas of concern: (1) interim and task force organizational structures and linkage-related issues, (2) program staffing, including utilization of existing staff or recruiting new staff, (3) continuity of organizational operations and maintaining expertise roles, (4) role conflict and the problem of alienation of the school principal, (5) teacher issues and teacher groups, (6) community issues, particularly minority concerns, and (7) quality control importance and factors. (SB)